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ABSTRACT

School based teacher educators are specialists in instructional improvement and facilitators of teacher learning whose primary base of operation is the elementary or secondary school. The role of the clinical instructor is both supervisory and facilitative and requires that the instructor constantly conceive, implement, and evaluate changes in instructional practices. Four different school based teacher educator roles have been conceptualized: part-time preservice, full-time preservice, part-time inservice, and full-time inservice. The most important preservice teacher educator is the supervising teacher. This is the person by whom the student teacher is most influenced in terms of classroom behavior. The main function of supervising teachers is to develop the student teachers' perceptions of the teaching-learning process. Inservice staff development will take on increasing importance as teachers lengthen their tenure. The school based teacher educator role has promise as a dynamic factor in the upgrading of inservice staff development. Individuals filling the school based teacher educator role will have to be educational clinicians who can maintain positive attitudes amid the rigors of assisting teachers to modify and change their classroom behaviors. (DMT)

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SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS: Rationale, Role Description and Research

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SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

2

SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS: Rationale, Role Description and Research

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Rationale

TEACHER EDUCATION AND SOCIAL CHANGE

The need to improve teacher effectiveness has always been a concern to educators but it has greatly increased in recent years. This situation has arisen due to changes in society and deficiencies in initial teacher training programs. As well, deficiencies arise as teachers advance to new teaching roles requiring knowledge and skills not provided by their initial training, but essential for effectiveness in their roles. The increasing need to improve teacher effectiveness is commensurate with our rapidly changing times that have produced: (a) a need for new emphases in education, and hence in teaching, (b) new teaching knowledge and skills, and (c) new systems for training teachers. The use of terms such as "educational reform" and "teacher renewal" in teacher education literature are indicative of the need for change. Teacher education is perennial.

Corrigan (1974) states that:

> The teachers now in the schools who are 40 to 45 years old and have 20 to 25 years of teaching left are 'career teachers'. Unless we reeducate them right along with the new teachers, the schools will not improve significantly (p. 105).

The impact of our increasingly dynamic society forces us to realize that no teacher can long maintain an effective teaching career with only the initial level of professional training in the knowledge and skills of teaching. Mead (White, 1973) wrote, "No man will ever again die in the same world in which he was born."

Educators agree that teaching is changing but that these modifications have not kept pace with other societal changes. Basically we still associate teaching with a rectangular room, individual desks, chalkboards, a teacher and thirty students. Some changes have occured, such as the increased use of varied audio-visual materials, removal of the ink wells, a more abundant supply of books and improved decor. However, the most extensive change has been in the students themselves. They are the products of a changed and changing society, but that society provides an educational environment basically the same as the one provided twenty to thirty years ago.

While basic changes in the school have remained minimal, new school policies and strategies reacted slowly to new demands. When societal change was slow, such reactive stances may have been adequate, or at least not obviously inadequate. As the tempo of change has increased, the discrepancy between societal expectation and the achievement of the schools has become greater. This expanding gap partially is our own doing. Educators have tended to take on more than they can deliver, failing to practice "selective forgetting," a survival tactic in a changing society.

Society has assigned certain expectations to the educational system that have broadened and changed over the past few years as society itself has changed. For example, in 1900 people were not

concerned with school dropouts when less than 10 percent graduated from high school. Today, with greater than 90 percent completing high school, and secondary education assumed as a right of each individual, dropouts are considered a major problem.

Some outward physical changes reflected in school buildings and commercial curricula, combined with cultural and technological ones, have altered greatly the role expectations of teachers. As the nation moved closer to universal secondary education, student ability, expectations, and motivations reflected a wider span. The social awareness of the sixties further modified student expectations in their goals, and schools reflected the new sensitivity.

Preservice programs have tended to become more field oriented as they reflect changes in teacher preparation programs; inservice has been slight or non-existent as schools have expended tight budgets in places more evident to the public. The preparation of teachers who understand change and adequately deal with changed student awareness, societal expectations and increased accountability, has not been effective. We have not prepared ourselves to understand and to deal effectively with the changes swirling around us.

THE NEED FOR CONTINUOUS TEACHER EDUCATION

The range of teacher professional values is great. Some teachers are dedicated to improved education of children and youth; others are apathetic. Some cling to the same content and deductive procedures used for years; others try every new innovation. Some are frustrated by the insurmountable student problems they see as causes of undesirable classroom happenings, rather than as results of an inadequate school situation. All these teacher attitudes indicate that the education of teachers will never be complete. Jackson (1971) states that teaching experience alone is not adequate and "experience, though it may be the best teacher, is often insufficient to stimulate continued growth (p. 28). Those who cannot accept this concept may find that their

students have thoughts similar to those of Lewis Carrol's Gryphon who said, "That's the reason they're called Lessons. They lessen from day to day."

Cogan (1975) reminds us that the established professions require the practitioner to continue his education throughout his entire professional life to gain new knowledge and competencies so that he will not lapse into professional obsolescence. Considering the conservative nature of the educational institution and the inadequacy of preservice education, Cogan concludes that teachers, unless given continuous on-site training, will fall into the obsolescence trap rather early in their careers. Furthermore when one considers the sporadic nature of efforts at educational renewal and the increasing knowledge of what constitutes teacher effectiveness, it would be unrealistic to assume that the obsolescence trap is empty at this time.

When teachers become obsolete in their classroom procedures, teacher renewal becomes a two-step process involving teachers gaining the theoretical background of new procedures, and the actual implementation of such procedures. When a teacher is involved in both processes, they better understand the reason for change. The reeducation or "renewal" of teachers calls for "changes" in teachers' classroom behaviors. The process increases in difficulty with time and frequently becomes an insurmountable task for the individual teacher. Pressures to change cause many teachers to seek positions which they feel do not require changed procedures; a few view the situation as impossible and leave the profession or take early retirement; some remain in their teaching positions and shroud themselves with an ultraconservative, almost anti-educational attitude. Much of the unpleasantness associated with pressure to change teaching behavior could be prevented if practicing teachers were provided with continuous teacher education.

The need for continuous teacher education becomes more evident as recent research provides evidence on effective teaching procedures. Prior to the 1960's researchers rarely went into the classroom for

their data. Gage (1963) notes: "Such approaches treated the classroom as a *black box* into which were fed teachers, pupils, hardware and software, and out of which came various results--and more or less pupil learning." The variables considered in such research efforts (Figure 1) were presage variables that concern the characteristics the teacher takes with him into the classroom; context variables concerned with pupil characteristics, materials and environmental factors; and product variables concerned with what learning came out of the classroom. These research efforts, which did not focus on the classroom behaviors of the teacher or the students, did not produce findings that

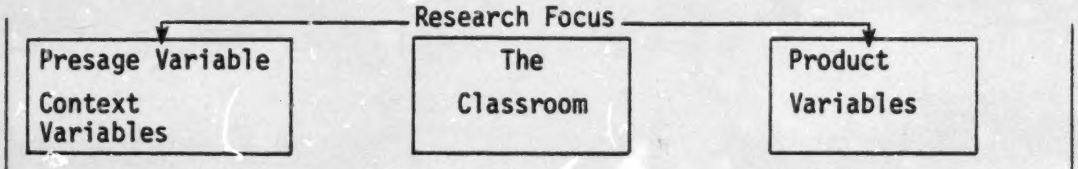

Figure 1

EARLY MODEL FOR RESEARCH ON TEACHING

would improve teaching or learning processes. The research tradition was looking for characteristics that would identify "good" teachers. The new paradigm for research on teaching effectiveness (Figure 2) which has gradually appeared in the past twenty years focuses on the classroom and is attempting to determine which interactive teacher and student

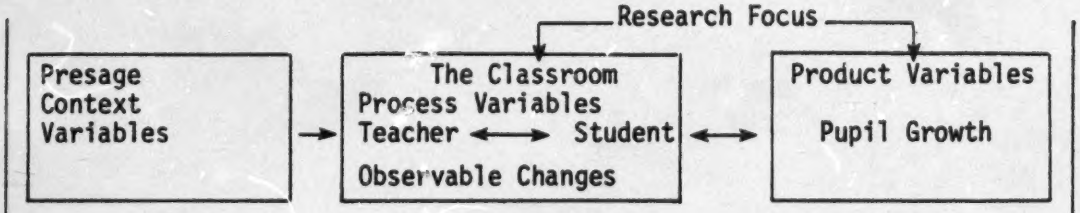

Figure 2

CURRENT MODEL FOR RESEARCH ON TEACHING

classroom behaviors are most productive in terms of pupil learnings. The findings from this type of research are increasing our knowledge of effective teaching processes. Dunkin and Biddle (1974) state that:

> At long last we are beginning to know what is actually going on in the classroom, as well as what produces and results from classroom events. Surely the appearance of this research effort is one of the most significant developments in education during the twentieth century (p. 418).

How can classroom teachers keep informed of such significant developments in education? Corrigan (1974) sees the need for trained professionals who will work not only with children and youth, but with teachers as well. He alludes to a new kind of specialist who will work within a teaching team as a demonstration teacher, interpreting what research means for learning and instruction. He sees this specialist as an agent for effective utilization of research results, and we see this person helping to prevent teachers from becoming obsolete in their profession.

The needs for continuous teacher education is particularly important for those teachers who are supervising teachers. That the supervising teacher is the single most important factor in determining the teaching behavior of the preservice teacher is well established (Tittle, 1974). The trend of teacher preparation institutions to increase the clinical aspects of their programs also increases the importance of the role of the supervising teacher. Add to these factors the increased need for more specific knowledge of teaching and learning processes demanded by competency based programs, and it is imperative that supervising teachers be both current and highly knowledgable in effective teaching practices.

Continuous professional education for teachers will increase as societal change and research on teacher effectiveness produce new and more effective teaching and learning environments. Likewise, on-site or school based teacher education will increase and the agent for this process will be "the specialist" or "the trained professional," as described in current educational literature, and whom we have identified as the "school based teacher educator."

Roles of SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

GENERAL ROLE

When a new position is proposed within an existing system, it is necessary to: (a) define its role, (b) clarify its role in relationship to other established roles within the system, (c) support the need for the position, and (d) provide evidence that the tasks to be performed by the persons in the position will contribute to the system's purpose.

School based teacher educators are defined as: *those persons who have responsibilities for staff development and whose main base of operations is the elementary and secondary school classroom.* The distinctive features of the general role of the school based teacher educator can be illuminated by examining this position in terms of the roles, tasks and perceived functions of current supervisory personnel. Figure 3 illustrates how the tasks for supervisors (Harris, 1975) and consultants (Meyen, 1971), and the parameters within which they function are similar to, and differ from those of school based teacher educators.

Factors Compared	Present Supervisory Personnel	School Based Teacher Educators
Location of Operation	Central Office The school system The classroom	Classroom
School Personnel Most Frequently Interacting With	Principals Teachers Supervisory Staff Supportive Staff	Teacher Intern Supervisory Staff Supportive Staff University Personnel Team Leader
Areas of Responsibility	Developing Curriculum Organizing for Instruction Providing Facilities Providing Materials Arranging for and Providing Inservice Orienting New Staff Relating Special Services Developing Public Relations Evaluating Instruction Performing Administrative and Other Duties (Clerical)	Adapting Curriculum to Specific Classroom Situations Demonstrating Instructional Skills Assisting Teachers in Organizing for Instruction Assisting Teachers in Effective use of Materials and Facilities Providing Continuous classroom Inservice/ Preservice Instruction

Figure 3

GENERAL ROLE OF SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS COMPARED TO THAT OF PRESENT SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL

Harris (1975) identifies primary supervisory tasks as developing, organizing, providing, arranging, orienting, relating and evaluating. He states that:

> Supervision of instruction is directed toward both maintaining and improving the teaching-learning processes of the school. It is what school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching processes employed to promote pupil learning. (p. 10-11)

Wiles' (1975) definition of supervisory behavior is similar to that of Harris, but he notes that such a role could be filled by the behavior of a superintendent assisting a teacher. His main criteria of supervisory effectiveness is that the supervisory behavior must lead to improved learning situations for students--a criterion similar to that of school based teacher educator's behavior. However, the scope of the behavior, or the parameters of the school based teacher educators' role are reduced from system or district to the classroom.

The 'clinical supervisor' has been described by Cogan (1973) as one who works within the classroom as opposed to the general supervisor who works outside of the classroom on related issues such as curriculum development. The clinical supervisor regularly visits the classroom to assist teachers in the actual teaching situation through observation, analysis, conferencing and other clinical techniques. These processes are more closely associated with the tasks of the school based teacher educator, but in addition to being a clinician, the school based teacher educators also have teaching experience. One might differentiate between general supervisory functions and the school based teacher educator functions by viewing the former as being macro (system wide) while the latter tend to be more micro (classroom oriented).

The facilitative role of the instructional supervisor is indicated by Comfort and Bowen (1974) when they note that current research on instructional supervision points to the role as one of conceiving, implementing, and evaluating changes in instructional practices. This role is synonymous with that of the school based teacher educator, if such facilitative action takes place within the classroom and involves working with teachers. Hughes and Achilles (1971) state that:

> The role of the supervisor is probably not one of creating change, but rather one of facilitating a change process through an understanding of the several relatively well defined states through which an idea moves from the research and investigation state to the institutionalization stage. (p. 841)

The school based teacher educator would be expected to provide the knowledge of research findings for teachers, to be able to demonstrate the application of the new knowledge in the classroom and to assist the teachers in effectively adopting the new processes.

Although the school based teacher educator will perform some functions similar to present supervisory personnel, it may be helpful to distinguish the SBTE from the supervisory label. The supervisory term has tended to become all encompassing, often with administrative tasks associated with it. Russell (1969) after reviewing the literature on instructional supervisors concluded that:

> The instructional supervisors are what each individual system says they will be. Some perform staff and line functions, some just staff functions...As a result confused perceptions of the supervisory role often hamper his attempts to offer creative instructional leadership (p. 2).

Anderson (1972) noted that the National Science Teachers' Association description list of the science supervisor's responsibilities are so numerous that he wonders why anyone would choose to be one. The same problem is evident when one examines local school district job descriptions for supervisory personnel. Some are several pages and they leave few stones unturned. Carlson (1965) reported that when working with a committee representing school personnel holding various supervisory positions, the term "supervisor" brought forth a multiplicity of functions which varied from person to person. Marchak (1970) surveyed 626 teachers, principals and supervisors as to the expectations of the role of supervisor of instruction. The three groups did not agree on the tasks.

The number of tasks associated with the supervisory functions has increased because of the differing perceptions held by educators of the role. The most negative of these is the perception of the supervisor as an evaluator. Likert (1961) indicates that the subordinate's perception of his supervisor influences the subordinate's

response more than the supervisory act alone. To avoid this negative perception, any evaluative procedures conducted by the school based teacher educator must focus on developing the process of teacher self-evaluation. If school based teacher educators are perceived other than as teachers of teachers, their effectiveness will be reduced. Divorcing them from the stigma attached to the supervisory label should facilitate their acceptance among teachers.

Goldhammer (1969) provides further support for avoiding the supervisory label and for reducing the parameters within which the school based teacher educator will function when he writes that:

> Despite some efforts by professional writers to free it (supervision) from its watchdog origins, supervision remains a bugaboo for many teachers, an experience to be avoided at all costs...Because it generally counts for so much, supervision counts for nothing (p. vii).

His statement concerning supervision seems to summarize well our discussion as to why the school based teacher educator must be considered a teacher of teachers, whose main responsibility is that of increasing the classroom effectiveness of teachers by working in classrooms with teachers, and not a supervisor overseeing teachers.

SPECIFIC ROLES

Four different School Based Teacher Educator roles have been conceptualized:

1. Part-time preservice
2. Full-time preservice
3. Part-time inservice
4. Full-time inservice

At the present time a number of different supervisory personnel partially fulfill the functions proposed for school based teacher educators. Examples of the current supervisory positions associated with these functions are presented in the cells of the four school based teacher educators' roles.

	Part-Time	Full-Time
Preservice	Supervising teacher of Student Teachers British Tutor	Intern Consultant Clinical Consultant University Supervisor
Inservice	Team Leader Departmental Chairperson Principal Staff Coordinator Professional Tutor	Coordinator Consultant Resource Teacher Instructional Supervisor Curriculum Supervisor

Figure 4

SPECIFIC ROLES OF SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

Each cell in the matrix will be discussed in terms of the need for that particular role and the effectiveness of the tasks associated with that role as they are supported by research.

PRESERVICE ROLES OF SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

Part Time Preservice-Supervising Teacher

The most important preservice teacher educator is the supervising teacher, particularly when research findings repeatedly indicate that the supervising teacher is the single most important professional in the trainee's development (Mintz, 1972). The supervising teacher's role is partially a modelling role. Mintz also concludes that the closer the relationship between the supervising teacher and the student teacher, the more influence the supervising teacher has. Since student teacher behavior is extensively affected by the classroom behavior of an experienced teacher, if the supervising teacher were trained as a school based teacher educator, more assurance could be given that the behaviors being learned by the student teacher were the effective behaviors of a competent teacher. (Such an argument for school based teacher educators need not confine itself to preservice teacher education.)

Seperson and Joyce (1973) indicate that the influence of the supervising teacher is felt during the very early weeks of the student teaching period. Under present supervisory practices this means that if the supervising teacher is ineffective, the student teacher may have incorporated some of the cooperating teacher's ineffectiveness. Bennie (1972) notes that despite the tremendous responsibility upon the shoulders of the classroom teacher, little has been done to assure that such a person is prepared for this responsibility. He also recognizes that:

> ... the skills needed for teaching first grade are not identical to those needed for teaching a college student (or inservice teacher) or in providing demonstration, analysis and evaluation of the teaching act itself... (p. 67-68).

Smith (1969) is more adamant; he points to the one condition essential for the success of an intern program--a highly qualified teacher who is given sufficient time to work closely with the interns under his charge. He places the responsibility for training and preparing such supervising teachers with the universities and colleges. He believes that if such institutions concentrate upon the preparation of supervising teachers, an adequate supply could be provided in a relatively short time.

Several research studies have been concerned with inservice staff development programs concerning the supervision of student teachers. Recent findings (Andreson, 1971, Greer, 1972) indicate that such programs are not only needed but that they are also wanted. Supervising teachers indicated a need for knowledge concerning observation techniques, formal evaluation procedures, the teaching processes, conferencing techniques and professional relations with the student teacher. The researchers indicated that there was no evidence that such programs would be available to teachers despite budgetary provisions for the programs. Other studies (Bergen, 1970) indicate that at present very few supervising teachers have formal training programs for supervising teachers.

The need for specially trained supervising teachers is very evident. Findings reported by Sorenson and Halpert (1969) showed that 70 percent of the student teachers whom they studied experienced "considerable psychological discomfort" at the beginning of the student teaching experience, and 20 percent carried that discomfort with them to the end of the assignment. The researchers identified five stress factors, two of which were identified as sources of discomfort directly involving the supervising teachers. They arose from disagreements between the student teacher and the supervising teacher concerning teaching practices, and perceived differences in personality between student teacher and supervising teacher. A third stress factor concerned the relationship between the student teacher and pupils and it was referred to as "dislike of students."

Dussault (1970) reviewed both expository and research literature on student teaching from 1931 to 1968, and paralleled expository statements of desired outcomes with research findings of actual outcomes. A desired broad outcome of the student teaching experience is a teacher who is open to new ideas and approaches and one who begins to develop his own teaching style. Dussault's work revealed that the student teaching experience led to: (1) less openness to new experience; (2) adoption of accepted practices; (3) adoption of the supervising teacher's method of teaching and classroom housekeeping; (4) less logical consistency of ideas about education; (5) more negative perception of child behavior; and (6) more custodial, pupil-control ideology.

In an experimental field study which matched student teacher and supervising teacher perceptions of the supervising teacher's role the results did not reflect any significant relationship between congruence of perception and the effectiveness of the student teacher or his satisfaction with the student teaching experience. (Mayers, 1974) However, the problem of perceptual differences with the "Triad" (student teachers, university supervisors and supervising teachers) caused Garland (1965) to develop a role expectation instrument to

identify expectations which could lead to conflict. Castillo (1971) finding a lack of consensus by Triad members on 50 items concerning the role expectations of the supervising teacher conducted interviews with the respondents to determine the cause of the divergence of thought concerning the role. He noted that (a) supervising teachers do not have the time to perform a number of the role expectations; (b) certain roles are neither mandatory nor specified as "formal" expectations for the supervising teacher; (c) many supervising teachers may not have the ability or necessary expertise to perform some of the expected roles; (d) performance of the expected role by the supervising teacher is dependent upon the specific situation or need of the student teacher; and (e) the responsibility in performing some of these roles should be shared by the college supervisor or other school personnel.

This state of affairs seems to have been remedied in some situations. A symposium of school administrators, concerned with school based undergraduate education for teachers, published their proceedings under the heading, The University Can't Train Teachers (Bowman, 1972). Although some of those attending may have had this precise feeling, the discussions therein described a program which placed strong emphasis on extending the time preservice teachers spend in the school setting and permitting those with 30 university credit hours to be admitted to a school based teacher preparation program.

The program, known as the Portland Urban Teacher Education Project, used supervisor-instructors who were described as the crucial intermediaries in the preparation program. They were a supportive source of information and guidance for the interns, and they possessed unique skills in instruction and analysis of instruction. Some of the supervisor-instructors were university faculty, while others were jointly appointed by the school system and the university. Their responsibilities were similar in that they worked closely with preservice teachers providing classroom supervision and special instruction in seminar situations.

Although we do not envision a teacher preparation plan similar to that of PUTEP, the role of the supervisor-instructor is very similar to that of the preservice school based teacher educator either part time or full time. Although PUTEP has not evaluated the cognitive competencies and skills of its graduates, it is important to note that in their affective evaluations they found a statistically significant shift towards positive attitudes of teaching and schooling.

One may ask, "What are some of the specific tasks and functions associated with the successful supervising teacher?" The answer to this question will also indicate the competencies needed by the school based teacher educator who is mainly concerned with preservice education.

Many studies have been concerned with the affective aspects of the supervising teacher's role. The supervising teacher is expected to reflect enthusiasm, a sharing trust, flexibility and patience and should be more than willing to assume the role and the added responsibility of training student teachers (De Young, 1975). The supervising teacher's role should be performed in a manner that allows the student teacher to develop a staff member feeling and a feeling of independence in planning and teaching as well as providing an opportunity for adequate teaching responsibilities (McCrystal, 1973). The responsibilities and independence granted to the student teacher should be gradual but before the end of the teaching experience the student teacher should assume control (Garner, 1969).

A main function of supervising teachers is to develop the student teacher's perceptions of the teaching-learning process. They must also carry out regular non-directive conferences with the student teacher during which the critical variable is the student teacher's attitude toward the supervising teacher and the conference (Cohen, 1972). Research findings indicate that when the supervising teacher functions in an indirect manner at such conferences, the behavior produces positive

student teacher ratings of: (a) amounts of learning about self and classroom behavior, (b) the presence of supportive communicative climate, and (c) conference productivity. When the student teacher perceives the supervising teacher as practicing more direct behavior, his/her perception was associated with: (a) supervising teacher efforts to control student teacher behavior, (b) supervising teacher attitudes of superiority, (c) supervising teacher intent to evaluate, (d) supervising teacher certainty of having "right" answers, and (e) less freedom to initiate discussion about teaching problems (Link, 1970).

A Delphi Technique was utilized to obtain data on the competencies requisite for a supervising teacher (Dock, 1971). The one hundred randomly selected participants included the following ten people from each of ten states: two directors of student teaching programs in NCATE approved institutions; two college or university supervisors; two cooperating teachers; two principals; one state department certification official; and one author in the area of student teaching. The conclusions arising from the study were: (1) the supervising teacher should possess, know and understand his own philosophy of education and be receptive and supportive of the student teacher as he develops his philosophy; (2) the supervising teacher should identify and diagnose the needs of his student teacher quickly and plan his student teaching responsibility accordingly; (3) the supervising teacher should establish and maintain a trusting relationship with his student teacher; (4) the supervising teacher should be a scholar and a competent teacher; (5) the supervising teacher should be competent in gathering and interpreting objective data through the utilization of interaction analysis techniques, and audiotape and videotape recordings; (6) the supervising teacher should provide access to information relative to the capabilities and achievements of his students to facilitate planning for instruction; (7) the supervising teacher should exemplify creativeness and encourage his student teacher to experiment with new ideas and techniques in teaching.

The above statements might be more correctly identified as tasks of the supervising teacher; however, they do indicate the areas in which a group of educators from ten states would require competence. A list of critical requirements for supervising teachers derived from an analysis of critical incidents reported by student teachers produces conclusions similar to those given by the experienced educators (Copas, 1971).

The review relating to the role of the part time preservice school based teacher educator has focused on the present position that best exemplifies that role, namely that of the supervising teacher. Several conclusions can be drawn at this time: (1) there is clear evidence that there is a need to prepare classroom teachers as preservice school teacher educators; (2) those presently involved in preservice education, including the supervising teacher, recognize the need for and are desirous of special training; (3) several functions, tasks, and competencies required by the school based teacher educator have been ferreted out and have been found to be significant factors in producing a more effective preservice teaching experience and a more competent student teacher.

Full Time Preservice

The full time preservice school based teacher educators would not have classroom teaching responsibilities. They would work with preservice teachers who are under the charge of the traditional supervising teacher; their main base of operation, however, would be the schools; and they might have responsibilities for conducting seminars in the school for groups of preservice teachers. Although the full time preservice role excludes the function of being a practicing classroom teacher, those filling the role would require successful experience as classroom teachers as well as being specialists in teacher education. One might expect the full time school based teacher educator to be more highly prepared in teacher education than the part time preservice educator, although this would probably not be true in all cases.

The full time school based teacher educator position may be viewed by some as one rung higher up the career ladder than the part time position. The additional functions of the full time position, conducting seminars and working with supervising teachers, provides a rationale for an individual more proficient in the theoretical aspects of teacher education. It is likely that the full time preservice educators would frequently find themselves providing education for the student teacher and the supervising teacher.

The reasons for having a full time preservice school based teacher educator and the tasks associated with the position, are similar to those discussed for the part time role. Whether a part time or a full time role is most desirable will depend upon situational factors such as: the size of the school jurisdiction; the number of preservice teachers in the district; the level of competence of existing supervising teachers; and the school district's commitment to improving preservice teacher preparation. A comparison of the similarities and differences of the full time preservice teacher educator to that of the clinical professor, the intern consultant, and the university supervisor may be helpful in understanding this role.

The clinical professor and the university supervisor both work in the schools with preservice teachers. The clinical professor was seen as one who would occupy a position midway between the institution in which the teacher candidate is prepared and the school district in which he receives his practicum experience, but in practice, clinical professors have tended to gravitate toward either the school or the university as their main base of operation. They are usually appointed and paid by the university. This seems to cause an increasing involvement in functions and tasks associated with the university. A national survey in 1973 (Kazlov) indicates that 86 percent of clinical professors in nine states are field based but due to a lack of clarity concerning the role, excessive demands are placed upon the clinical professor by the university, which, at the same time does not grant a high status to the position.

Conant (Hazard, 1967) defines the qualifications for a clinical professor when he says:

> ...there should be a permanent profession...of people who were not expected to produce research or write learned papers but whose whole career would be based on (a) their success as a teacher in a school, and (b) their success in supervising future teachers in a school... (p. 147).

One teacher education program (Altman, 1973) views the clinical professor as:

> A classroom teacher who supervises all of the student teachers in his building. During the semester he teaches his own class half time and supervises student teachers half time (p.v).

We hope that the term school based teacher educator will clarify the situation as to where such a persons plants his roots. The qualifications for the two roles being discussed--academic qualifications, supervisory skills and expertise as a practitioner in the classroom--are similar.

A currently existing role that functions in the schools and which can be considered as a full time preservice school based teacher educator is the intern consultant, who is a clinical consultant, employed by the university. He works with a group of interns in the school(s) in both theoretical and practical operations (Bloom, 1971). Fitch (1969) found that preservice teachers and intern consultants perceive each other's roles more clearly and with less incongruence than previous studies had indicated to exist between the preservice teacher and the supervising teacher. Intern consultants were more successful in using indirect techniques and their functions were viewed by the preservice teacher as assisting and consulting, but not evaluating. The intern consultants were perceived as emphasizing practical tasks, but the interns would have preferred them to have been even more practical (Bloom, 1971).

Competencies required of intern consultants were not identified in any of the literature reviewed; however, criteria identified as a basic guide for the selection of intern consultants were available which suggested areas in which competence would be required. Those criteria not included in the description of the part time preservice role are: (1) accepts supervisory tasks willingly and looks upon them as a means of contributing to the profession; (2) demonstrates that he has organizational and managerial skills; (3) reflects a positive professional attitude and a real liking and respect for teaching; (4) is able to establish a feeling of security on the part of the student teachers by clarifying his responsibilities throughout the student teaching period; (5) is able to demonstrate and understand the basic principles of effective teaching and learning; (6) is able to demonstrate cooperative attitudes in relationships with other members of the staff; (7) is enthusiastic regarding the role of intern consultant; (8) is able to demonstrate an acquaintance with the literature of his or her professional field; and (9) has developed an appreciation for people who are different in culture, or racial, religious, economic, and national background, and is willing to accord them full equality of opportunity (Meyers, 1973).

In the preceding discussion of the full time preservice role it was noted that those existing positions most similar to the role were appointed by the university. If the preservice school based teacher educator is appointed by the school district, to maximize his effectiveness he should be closely associated with the teacher education institution attended by the student teacher. This close association would increase the likelihood that the school based teacher educator would: (1) hold philosophic and teaching practice beliefs congruent with those of the college and the student teacher; (2) conceptualize the preservice functions and tasks in a manner similar to that of the student teacher's college (Nabhan, 1974); and (3) support the student teaching program (Crocker, 1972).

INSERVICE ROLES OF SCHOOL BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

The most universally accepted axiom in contemporary teacher education is that the future of teacher education lies in inservice rather than preservice. The postwar baby-boom has ended. The availability and social acceptance of contraceptive devices, coupled with an increased awareness on the part of the general populace of the negative effects of overpopulation, has resulted in a declining birth rate over the past several years. As the birth rate declines, schools will experience fewer students.

These trends are already having noticeable effects on the teaching profession. Positions for beginning teachers, abundant only a few years ago, are becoming less available (with the exception of a few, highly specialized areas such as bilingual, special education, vocational, and secondary mathematics and science teachers). Teachers seem to be much less horizontally mobile as a group than has been the case in the recent past. Those holding positions are keeping their jobs rather than laterally moving from school to school, district to district, seeking better pay and working conditions.

We are suggesting, then, that in the years ahead inservice staff development will take on increasing importance as teachers lengthen their tenure. We further suggest that the school based teacher educator role has promise as a dynamic factor in the upgrading of inservice staff development. Are licensed, practicing teachers really less in need than prospective teachers of support and assistance to help them become more effective in their teaching? Are practicing teachers any less in need than prospective teachers of assistance in becoming more analytic--better able to diagnose student needs and prescribe treatment to meet those needs? Do practicing teachers need less support than student teachers in decreasing incongruity between intent and action--helping one in becoming the type of teacher one wants to become? Tyler (1971) sees inservice education as not "shaping" teachers but rather as aiding, supporting and encouraging. In short, we see the differences in needs between student teachers and supervising teachers being one of level or complexity.

Part Time Inservice

The competencies required to perform student teacher supervision in an exemplary fashion, form a core of abilities required to function in inservice roles such as instructional supervisor. In fact, preservice education and inservice staff development may be conducted by the same person, at the building level, where their efforts could be more complementary to each other. A plan of this nature is currently being developed under the direction of the Division of Educational Studies, Emory University (Riechard, 1974). The team consists of an intern who has completed a baccalaureate degree in a field other than teacher education, and an extern who is an experienced elementary teacher in one of the participating school systems. The team works together in the elementary classroom while each is enrolled in on-campus graduate courses. The extern can develop and practice supervisory techniques and leadership skills as basic foundations for professional advancement to positions such as lead teacher, grade-level chairperson and classroom instructional supervisor. For the intern the program provides an excellent opportunity to relate theory and practice.

The roles for which the Emory program prepares the extern are similar to those performed by the part time inservice school based teacher educator. There is evidence that team leaders, department chairpersons, and principals can be effective as resource persons in an inservice capacity; however, these roles also consist of administrative and evaluative tasks. As such, inservice staff development is not a focal point of these roles, but would be the focal point for part time inservice school based teacher educators.

A unique example of the part time inservice school based teacher educator can be drawn from abroad. The James Report (Perkins, 1974) examined British teacher education and found it lacking in a number of respects. The most important recommendation of that report for our purposes was the portion that dealt with meeting the needs of licensed but probationary (pretenure) teachers. The James task

force found that once a teacher had been employed, virtually no support was offered by the schools to assist that individual in achieving the requisite level of performance necessary to be awarded tenure. In an effort to meet that need the task force recommended instituting a professional tutor system.

The James Report recommended that a least one master teacher in each school be designated as a professional tutor and be given released time from teaching duties to help newly employed teachers achieve the level of performance required to secure tenure. The James Report became official government policy in England, and British schools are now required to offer professional tutor assistance to pretenure teachers.

To the best of our knowledge, no equivalent position now exists in American schools; yet the need which was addressed by the James Report recommendation does exist. Beginning teachers in American schools certainly have no less need for on-the-job support than do British teachers. Fuller and Bown (1975) indicate that the early inservice years may offer the best opportunity for improved teaching and that this is an opportunity soon lost. They contend that teacher effectiveness rises rapidly during the first years and then levels off or decreases. However, the first year of teaching can be a very lonely and frustrating year. We might ask who is in the school, or district area, to assure that the young teacher receives assistance during this period.

Evidence of the need for and the appreciation of part time advisory services by teachers was clearly demonstrated by a school district, an area service center, Champaign County, Illinois (Katz, 1974). This center announced the availability of advisory services from the University of Illinois upon request to the teachers of seven school districts. The advisory work was carried out by two experienced elementary teachers who had extensive experience in training teachers. The advisors found that they were sharing with teachers

highly sensitive information that was to be held in confidence. Teachers reported that they needed to have someone with whom they could discuss their teaching problems without fear of reports being made to superiors. The teachers viewed the part time inservice assistance provided upon request as being the kind that best served their needs since the help was based on concrete situations in their classroom and not on abstract "things," as in other inservice experiences.

The advisors noted that they had to be extremely careful in providing demonstrations as it was often easy to undermine the authority and competence of the teacher in the eyes of her students. They also saw a need to establish credibility of expertise fairly early in the advisor-teacher relationship. The success of the advisors is best illustrated in that there were sometimes problems in terminating relationships with teachers who no longer needed help but still requested it. Competencies for the tasks, other than expertise in the theory and practice of teaching, included the ability to cope with problem situations and at the same time remain alert and encouraging to those with whom they worked. In such situations the trusting relationship and the professional assistance of a school based teacher educator could mean the difference between an effective and an ineffective teacher.

Full-Time Inservice

Ruff (1974) contends that inservice education has been neither useful nor functional and that it has had little impact upon classroom teachers and their students. He asks three questions of inservice education:

1. Why do classroom teachers resent, ridicule, or whenever possible dissociate themselves from workshops?

2. Why does all the research compiled on inservice education show that there is virtually no impact or change in teacher behavior as evidenced in classroom instruction?

3. Why has it become necessary for many school districts to make inservice attendance for teachers mandatory, even threatening reduction of salary for failure to participate? (p. 507)

Two conditions of inservice, teacher attitude toward it and the individualization of activities, partially answer Ruff's questions concerning inservice. Despite adequately qualified inservice personnel, the success of inservice training is largely dependent upon the attitude of the teachers toward supervision and conferencing (Cohen, 1972). Brimm (1974) reports that a statewide research study in Tennessee found that teacher attitude toward inservice education was negative because teachers did not feel it met their needs. They recognized the need for continuing improvement in their teaching performance, but wanted more individualization of inservice education. Rubin (1971) advocates individualization of inservice on the basis that teacher's needs, assets and liabilities are not all similar.

The need for a full time inservice school based teacher educator is supported by Cogan (1975) who suggests that:

> ...tasks of helping teachers to improve their professional competencies must be continued on the job, or, through an inservice program that welds theory, research and practice continually and incrementally rather than episodically (p. 112).

These views are supported by Harris (1972) who asserts that instructional supervisors must have close contact with a project or other task-oriented situation. They must plan inservice activities that are closely associated with working situations, and consultations must be a part of a larger program of activities for change. They must also be clinical supervisors. Evidence that these conditions are necessary if one is to be effective in changing teacher behavior is presented in the following paragraphs.

There seems to be one common property of successful inservice programs - each utilizes the proposed functions and competencies of the school based teacher educator. A recent study at the University

of Southern California (Reilly, 1975) indicates that inservice teachers view the experienced teacher who is currently teaching as having the most credibility as a staff developer, and will take his advice over a professional specialist who has less teaching experience. The experienced teacher was viewed as a superior source of educational information in both the cognitive and the affective areas.

The study also indicated that an experienced teacher who had moved up the ladder to a higher position and who was not currently teaching, did not inspire the same degree of confidence among the teachers. They were rated second to the experienced and currently practicing teacher. These findings shed considerable light on the predicted success of the school based teacher educator. The part time SBTE who concurrently has classroom responsibilities may be slightly more effective than the full time SBTE in their work with inservice teachers. The findings also indicate that the school based teacher educator must be an experienced teacher to have credibility among teachers.

An experimental study by Coody (1967) tested various approaches to highly developed demonstrations to determine whether certain techniques have more impact than others in effecting changes in teaching. Briefly the approaches were: (a) simple observation, (b) briefing prior to the demonstration and followed by discussion, (c) briefings before the demonstration and individual consultations after the demonstration. Although there were significant changes in all approaches, the latter clinical approach produced the greatest change in teacher attitudes toward teaching practices. The treatment received by this group represents the tasks of combining theory, demonstration and practice. Clearly such clinical practices are seen as a part of the school based teacher educator's role but the time required to conduct the demonstration limits the feasibility of these practices with present school or school district personnel.

A related study by Boyd, Devault, and Houston (1962) involved a mathematics inservice program that resulted in greater mathematics achievement in some classes and significantly greater positive change in pupil interest in mathematics. In this study, as in the previous one, the effectiveness appears to have been due to follow-up classroom visitations by the researchers. During such visits the teachers were assisted in the processes of relating the new ideas, presented during an inservice program, to the actual classroom instruction procedures. This study further supports the teacher's need for clinical assistance as well as supporting the fact that such practices lead to improved student attitudes and performance.

A study by Bjork (1970) found that frequent visits by a consultant enables a teacher to better understand the implementation of new ideas, and that pupil achievement was increased by the resulting change in teacher performance. Further evidence (Cebula, 1970) suggests that: creative use of consultants by school districts; efficient preplanning by consultants; and appropriate consultive follow-up activities can effect teacher change. Baron (1972) indirectly reveals competencies required by consultants if they are to be effective change agents. He concludes that a consultant must be able to (a) convince teachers of his sincerity and ability to help; (b) make himself readily available and accessible; (c) start where teachers are, namely at the level of practice rather than philosophy; (d) be assertive and know when to push, prod, and persuade; (e) be non-aggressive and know when to stay in the background to listen thoughtfully and patiently; and (f) be understanding of human limitations, particularly the limitations of time and will.

The previously discussed research findings indicate that if teachers' classroom behavior is to be changed several conditions are necessary. The change agent, the inservice school based educator, must have credibility with the teachers and this can best be attained by the experienced, practicing classroom teacher. It is also noted that to be effective, those providing the training must provide

briefing sessions prior to training and follow-up activities after the training that consist of clinical assistance to the teacher in the classroom. The last condition required by one attempting to change teaching performance is that of frequent classroom visitation in order that the teacher can form a positive attitude towards those providing the assistance. A study at Columbia (Cohen, 1972) indicated that the teacher's attitude toward the supervisor and conferencing is the critical variable in changing teacher behavior. Bush's (1971) prescription to assure that this critical variable has a positive effect is simply to -- "treat the teacher as a professionally competent person." (p.37) It is our belief that a person specially trained to teach teachers in the school setting, the school based teacher educator, could possess the competence and provide the needed personnel hours to bring about effective changes in teacher classroom behavior. A question concerning competencies for the inservice role is, "How will the inservice school based teacher educator maintain his competence?" The present dilemma concerning teacher education arises from the need for change and for continued change in teaching processes. The school based teacher educator must be aware of current research in teacher effectiveness in order to facilitate this continual change.

Some educators suggest that university-based teacher educators and school based teacher educators should change places periodically for the betterment of each others' careers. Corrigan (1974) sees associates in teacher education as having dual appointments in schools and neighboring colleges. He describes these as new kinds of specialists rather than supervisors who come down from central office to evaluate teachers a couple of days a year. The new personnel that he perceives must work <u>with</u> teachers. Davies (1975) specifies that "educational renewal" must be school based, school specific or on the renewal site. Hough (1975) states that while the colleges are better equipped to do research the schools are the adapters or adopters of innovation. All of these educators are indicating that the school

based teacher educator, as described in this paper, should be associated with an institution of higher learning or that school districts must provide for continuous professional growth of the school based teacher educator.

In the 1970's, E. Brooks Smith (1974) revisited his Partnership in Education written in the 1960's. In his revision he sees the teacher center or the development center as the emerging mechanism for a new consortium partnership. The new consortium can be a strong favorable alliance,

> ... provided that university faculty are willing to work with teachers side by side in the field on their education problems and questions, basing their research and study on real situations (p. 353).

He notes that cooperative experimentation with teaching centers and the clinical experience programs have led the way to such possibilities.

Conclusion

The primary purpose of this position paper has been to provide a conceptual base for the notion of the school based teacher educator. In delineating this conceptual base we have given great attention to the role of the supervising teacher, but we have also suggested that if the supervising teacher is to perform his or her role in an exemplary fashion, skills and abilities must be gained that could have far-reaching implications for the improvement of inservice teacher education as well.

School based teacher educators, then, we see as specialists in instructional improvement: teachers of teachers, or in a more Rogerian sense, facilitators of teacher learning, whose primary base of operation is the elementary or secondary school, not the college or university classroom. Further, we see a variety of sub-roles within that classification--some of which are now in existence, at least in title; some of which do not presently exist in American education, but for which there seems to be a strong need. Individuals filling the school based teacher educator role will have to be educational clinicians who can maintain positive attitudes midst the rigors of assisting teachers to modify and change their classroom behaviors. The school based teacher educator is ably described by Abrell (1974) as:

> ... a person with a humanistic attitude consistently striving for a definite preference for asking rather than telling, sharing rather than controlling and trusting rather than mistrusting. A person who engages in a cooperative effort and whose humanistic attitude necessitates that those engaged in the partnership move beyond the trivial concerns of rigid procedures and paper pollution to the genuine concerns of persons and their growth (p. 214).

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